

The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

Editorial	395
Industrial Accidents and Safety Work <i>Earl E. Muntz</i>	397
Report of Club Survey at Keene, N. H. <i>Walter E. Hammond</i>	413
Educating the Educators—In-Service Training Opportunities for College Teachers <i>Archie M. Palmer</i>	417
Textbooks in Social Psychology <i>David Snedden</i>	424
An Attempt to Relate Sociology to Teachers' Activities . <i>Florence Zeleny</i>	430
An Evaluation of the Outside Reading Interests of a Group of Senior-High-School Pupils . <i>William R. Cain and Francis J. Brown</i>	437
Research Projects and Methods in Educational Sociology	443
Book Reviews	447
News from the Field	457
Contributors' Page	459

The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

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The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

Professor Albert B. Meredith, head of the department of school administration and supervision of the School of Education, New York University, and educational adviser of the regents program for public higher education in New Jersey, has submitted a report which, if carried out, will be far-reaching in the reorganization of higher education in that State. The numerous features of this revolutionary program cannot be presented in this editorial and therefore we can neither do justice to the program nor indicate its vital significance.

The general policy is expressed in the following statement:

In addition to providing new agencies throughout the State, wherever there is a demonstrated need, the Regents propose a plan to unify existing public and private institutions under proper conditions of State control into one inclusive university organization. The Regents do not seek to establish a comprehensive State university on a single campus or to act solely as a disbursing agency for the State in making grants to such institutions as it may utilize for public higher education. The educational situation in the State is too critical and too important for anything more than a broad and inclusive proposal. Furthermore, it is confidently believed that the State is prepared to seriously consider a long-term program, particularly as it does not involve an immediate or large expenditure of public funds.

The proposed first stage in the development of the plan is summarized by Professor Meredith as follows:

The incorporation by the legislature of "The University of New Jersey" with a board of trustees or regents of from seven to nine members appointed for terms of at least as many years, respectively, to whom should be given broad powers. The following will be typical of the authority to be granted:

1. To define the conditions under which educational units become component parts of the university. Some of these units may be public units and others privately chartered.
2. To exercise general supervision and direction over the administration of such institutions of higher education as shall become component parts of the university. Some of those institutions may already exist and others will be organized as both need and opportunity arise.
3. To administer the internal affairs of the University of New Jersey and also those of such institutions and activities in the field of higher education which exist as public units of the university or that may hereafter be created or so designated by authority of law.
4. To provide for the purchase by annual contract with the trustees of any institution of higher education within the State, except such State institution as shall be a component part of the University of New Jersey or an institution in which a religious doctrine or tenet may be taught, such higher educational services as the regents may desire, or to sell to said trustees such services of public higher education as such a body may desire.
5. To act jointly, with the board of trustees of any privately incorporated higher educational institution, not a component part of the University of New Jersey, in the general conduct of any or all the work in such administrative units as are not under the legal control of the trustees of such higher educational institutions; in the granting of degrees; and in the issuance of diplomas or of certificates of work accomplished.
6. To determine what educational corporations shall be licensed to grant degrees and diplomas.
7. To administer any trust funds that may be deposited with the regents of the university, the incomes of which are either to be allotted to specified units or which may be available for the benefit of the university as a whole.

So far as the writer knows this is the first serious attempt to organize a State program of higher education designed in every respect to meet the needs of the State and to prevent the ordinary overlapping of functions. We shall watch this development with keenest interest.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND SAFETY WORK

EARL E. MUNTZ

The achievements of modern industry are unfortunately marred by a startling casualty list. One of the immediate effects of the industrial revolution with its mechanization of industry was a tremendous increase in the number of health and accident hazards faced by the worker, and the subsequent evolution of industry has facilitated a cumulative increase in such hazards. Today it may truthfully be said that there is scarcely a trade which does not present its perils, and since industry is so largely city centered the problem of industrial health is a matter of prime importance to the student of urban problems. Statistics regarding both industrial accidents and occupational diseases are difficult to collect owing to the absence of nation-wide compulsory reports. It is, however, estimated that industrial fatalities range well above 20,000 annually and nonfatal accidents total at least 2,500,000 per year.¹ Other estimates place the number of fatalities as high as 35,000 and the number of nonfatal accidents above 3,500,000.²

In the pursuit of a livelihood wage earners are subjected to varying risks and hazards, some of which are peculiar to their own occupation, while others arise as a result of their own or others' carelessness. The fact that the startling total of persons incapacitated by industry is in large part needless has been emphasized over and over again. It would be futile to attempt to enumerate all the causes of industrial accidents, but a few of

¹The National Safety Council estimated 18,858 fatal industrial accidents for the year 1928, 20,000 in 1929, and 19,000 for 1930. Nonfatal lost-time injuries for 1930 are estimated at 2,500,000. Accident Facts, 1931. The National Safety Council, p. 51. Edison L. Bowers, in his recent volume, *Is It Safe to Work? A Study of Industrial Accidents* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1930), p. 4, places the annual total of fatal industrial accidents from 16,000 to 20,000, nonfatal accidents in excess of 2,500,000, and estimates an annual wage loss of one billion dollars.

²American Labor Year Book (New York: Rand Book Store, 1929), p. 85.

the more important causative factors might be cited, such as inadequate lighting, excessive heat, fatigue, gases and fumes, unguarded or defective machinery, special transportation hazards, and air pressure in excavating for great buildings and tunnels. Electrical accidents, burns, and falls also account for many industrial accidents. Some idea of the accident frequency and severity rate in various industries can be obtained from the accompanying chart derived from data compiled by the National Safety Council.³

ACCIDENT RATES BY INDUSTRIES, 1929-1930
(As reported to the National Safety Council by member establishments)

Industry	Frequency per 1,000,000 man hours worked		Severity days lost per 1,000 man hours worked	
	1929	1930	1929	1930
Automobile.....	22.17	12.83	.97	1.04
Ceramic.....	28.93	25.85	1.07	1.59
Construction.....	50.41	51.57	4.62	5.49
Chemical.....	17.50	15.50	1.72	1.94
Electric railways.....	29.75	22.49	1.93	1.96
Food.....	21.07	17.72	1.50	1.48
Foundry.....	30.30	32.11	1.73	2.23
Glass products.....	17.70	14.54	.80	.77
Laundry.....	12.78	8.96	1.53	.59
Machinery.....	18.91	14.11	1.11	1.02
Metal forming.....	29.71	17.59	1.67	1.26
Mining.....	74.43	49.34	9.99	8.94
Nonferrous milling and smelting...	23.16	17.14	2.71	2.03
Paper and pulp.....	28.43	23.65	1.77	1.89
Meat packing.....	55.94	34.38	1.47	.99
Petroleum.....	26.78	18.05	2.49	2.37
Printing and publishing.....	12.23	9.67	.67	.29
Public utilities.....	22.58	18.76	3.13	2.95
Quarry.....	26.71	23.46	6.11	3.30
Railway car and equipment.....	21.88	20.23	2.20	2.43
Refrigeration.....	43.35	35.17	3.04	2.28
Steel.....	18.13	11.99	2.75	2.47
Tanning and leather.....	31.35	16.49	1.60	1.16
Textile.....	11.82	9.23	.58	.66

The striking decline of both frequency and severity rates in 1930 from the 1929 levels may be attributed to two factors. First, the improvement reflects in no small degree the increasing effectiveness of safety campaigns and safety work in industry. Secondly, 1929 was a prosperous year with a correspondingly high rate of employment. Not only do we find employed the most efficient workers, both skilled and unskilled, who by reason of their very efficiency and presumably greater intelligence might be expected to show a relatively low accident rate, but also the inefficient among whom a much higher accident rate might be anticipated. On the other hand, 1930 was a depression year

³Accident Facts, 1930, p. 56. *Ibid.*, 1931, p. 52.

during which only the best and the most efficient employees could profitably be retained; the others were discharged or laid off thus eliminating from industry, for the time being, a group in which industrial casualties are prone to be high. Moreover, industry in 1929 was keyed up to a high pitch which generally results in a greater accident rate, while the depression in 1930 brought about a great slowing down of activities.

OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES

An occupational disease may be defined as one attendant on, and peculiar to, a specific occupation or industry and for which the process is wholly or principally responsible.⁴ There are, however, many common diseases which are contracted primarily as a result of conditions of labor or are aggravated by such conditions, and, although these are not ordinarily classified as occupational diseases, they may be included in a broader definition of the term. In this category then one might include tuberculosis, rheumatism, and other afflictions of ordinary origin. Some occupational diseases are relatively easy to discern, as in the case of anthrax or other bacterial diseases; but it is much more difficult to discover the existence of diseases caused by the use of certain chemical substances for the only symptoms appearing at first may be headache, constipation, or some minor ailments which are treated by the average physician without thought or knowledge as to the true cause. It is often true that only after a long period of abnormal biochemical and physiological disturbances in the body does the true nature of the disease manifest itself. Such a situation was presented a few years ago with reference to young women employed in painting luminous watch dials who contracted radium poisoning. It was not until considerable time, ranging from two to four years, had elapsed that the results of the poisoning were apparent but a great many of the victims had already succumbed to the

⁴J. D. Hackett, *Health Maintenance in Industry* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1925), p. 150.

poison. Moreover, different individuals show varying degrees of resistance to disease. Occupational diseases may result from the physical condition of the worker, harmful environmental conditions where the worker is employed, or from the materials used in the various processes of his work. The damage caused by the materials may be in the nature of poisoning from metals, acids, fumes or gases, irritation or destruction of the tissues by certain salts, or the grit and dust of certain rocks. Of the materials the greatest attention has been given to the reaction of poisonous metals and irritating gases and fumes.

The special disease hazards of occupations have been classified by Dr. E. R. Hayhurst in the following grouping.⁵

1. Metals

- a) filings, dust and fumes of metals or their salts
- b) poisonous metals—arsenic, antimony, brass, lead

2. Dusts

- a) insoluble inorganic dusts—flint, silica, sand, cement, marble, lime
- b) soluble, inorganic dusts—soluble metallic salts and compounds
- c) organic dusts—fur, skin, hides, flour, tobacco, jute

3. Gases, vapors, fumes

- a) illuminating gas, carbonic acid gas
- b) mineral acids
- c) tar, creosote
- d) nitro and amido compounds

To this list of occupational disease hazards may be added those involving friction and nervous tension, diseases following injuries, fatigue diseases, temperature disabilities, excessive noise or light, and atmospheric pressure. There are also many diseases which are at least partly occupational and may affect the respiratory, circulatory, and alimentary systems, and the skin, nerves and muscles, bones, and nutrition.⁶

⁵Emery R. Hayhurst, "The Significance of Occupational Diseases," *Monthly Bulletin*, Ohio State Board of Health, June 1913. Quoted in Hackett, *op. cit.*, pp. 152-153

⁶Emery R. Hayhurst, "Occupational Diseases," *National Safety News* (Chicago: National Safety Council, 1929), p. 44. For a complete account of industrial diseases, see George M. Kober and Emery R. Hayhurst, *Industrial Health* (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son and Company, 1924), lxxii+1184 pages; Sir Thomas Oliver, *Diseases of Occupation* (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1926), third revised edition. 495 pages

PREVENTIVE MEASURES

1. *Factory acts.* The undermining of health and the appalling toll of human life as a result of adverse conditions of labor were consistently directed to public attention in England during the early part of the nineteenth century. This agitation at first centered around the sorry plight of children employed in the great textile factories and culminated in the early factory acts designed for their protection. But when it was once admitted that legislation was necessary to safeguard the working conditions for children it was impossible to stop with this age group and, commencing about 1844, there subsequently appeared a voluminous mass of factory legislation regulating the physical and environmental conditions of labor, first of women and later of men.

Massachusetts was the first American State to pass legislation looking towards accident prevention when in 1852 a bill regarding the safety of steam machines was enacted and in 1870 the supervision of steam boilers was required. In 1877 inspectors were granted the right of entry into factories and certain regulations such as requiring the removal of dust were put into effect. The pioneer work of Massachusetts was of inestimable value in setting an example which other industrial States were not slow in accepting. Thus factory inspection was provided for in New Jersey and Wisconsin in 1884. Other early enactments of this nature followed in Ohio in 1884, New York in 1886, Connecticut, Minnesota, and Maine in 1887, Pennsylvania in 1889, and Missouri and Tennessee in 1891. Now all States have some form of legislation for the protection of children in industrial pursuits, almost all provide some protection for women, and the foremost industrial States have elaborate factory acts applying to the environmental conditions of labor for all workers.

Leaving aside such protective legislation as the limitation of hours, minimum wages, etc., which indirectly influ-

ence industrial accidents and occupational diseases by reducing the element of fatigue and attempting to assure a living wage, the more comprehensive factory acts of leading industrial States embrace the following provisions:

a) A general statement as to the condition of employment to be provided for by employers in workshop or factory. Thus the employer is required to furnish and use such safety devices and safeguards, adopt such methods and processes and prescribe such hours of labor as will be reasonably adequate to render the employments and place of employment safe, and must take every precaution reasonably necessary to protect the life, health, safety, and welfare of his employees.

b) Enumeration of the trades and industries covered.

c) Detailed provisions as to sanitation, lighting, ventilation, and fire protection of the working place.

d) General provisions regarding the safeguarding of machinery and equipment by the use of guard rails, fencing, exhaust fans, masks for employees, etc.

e) Special regulations for trades or manufacturing processes regarded as particularly hazardous. In this category fall those occupations in which the employee handles or uses lead and other poisons, where grinding processes are involved, and where the handling of hides and skins may cause anthrax.

f) Requirements designed for the preservation of the morals and general welfare of employees. Thus the law may require proper and adequate toilet facilities for the two sexes, washrooms, lunchrooms apart from the workrooms, restrooms for women, and first-aid requisites.

g) Prohibition of the employment of certain classes in dangerous occupations. Women and children are ordinarily excluded from such work, and the law may require periodic physical examination of all workers, as in the lead industries of Ohio, to exclude those who are unfit or show signs of contracting an occupational disease.

h) Prohibition on the maintenance of sweatshops. Any dwelling or part of a building connected with a tenement or dwelling is regarded as a sweatshop when used for the process of manufacturing wearing apparel, tobacco goods, or other products by persons other than the immediate members of the family living therein.

i) Duties of the industrial commission or other body charged with the administration of the factory acts. The functions of such agencies consist of the supervision and inspection of workshops and factories, the issuing of orders relating to safety and health, and the enforcement of all laws and orders relating thereto. Occasionally a special division of the industrial commission is created to conduct research studies and

investigations on the causes and prevention of industrial accidents and occupational diseases.

j) A schedule of penalties for violation of the factory acts.

2. *Workmen's compensation.* The workmen's compensation laws, although not factory acts in the sense of the above legislation, have had a decided influence in the reduction of industrial accidents and industrial diseases. These laws have come about as a result of the growing conviction that industries which are responsible for the loss of earning power of workers employed therein should bear the cost of such disasters. Under the old common law the injured employee invariably bore the brunt of the economic loss involved and in many cases the community had to assume the burden for the support of the workman, disabled more or less permanently, and for his family. The employer was not responsible to an employee for injuries sustained while at work unless negligence on the part of the employer was shown, and even then he could legally escape responsibility if proof was adduced to show that there was contributory negligence on the part of the employee or one of his fellow servants, or that the worker, upon accepting employment, assumed the risks which were presumed to be characteristic of the occupation.

Compensation laws are to be found in almost every State in the union.⁷ In general they provide for definite payments to injured workmen at the expense of the employer, and are made practically regardless of negligence. Accidents are looked upon as trade risks against which the workman should be adequately protected. His protection is secured by compelling the employer to insure through a State fund, a stock, or a mutual insurance company; in some jurisdictions the employer may maintain his own insurance fund subject to the approval of the State administrative body or give bond that he will duly pay such compensation as lawfully may be required of him. A schedule of payments is provided for various types of accidents, and in the case

⁷There remain but four States without workmen's compensation laws. These are South Carolina, Arkansas, Florida, and Mississippi, all southern States and essentially agricultural in nature.

of a permanently incapacitating injury monthly payments are usually granted for a number of years, and in a few States for the life of the injured or crippled worker. There is a growing tendency to award compensation to victims of occupational diseases, these being treated in the same manner as industrial accidents. Since the premiums which the employer must pay are largely conditioned by the frequency of accidents among his employees, there is a constant incentive before the employer to adopt such safety measures as will reduce his cost. His financial liability for accidents has made him an active agent in enforcing safe conditions in industry. Past experience has adequately demonstrated the fact that legal pressure is needed before the majority of employers interest themselves in the prevention of accidents and occupational diseases. Unfortunately, many small concerns refuse to admit that they have an accident problem and have refrained from engaging in voluntary safety work because the net cost of accidents is regarded as less expensive than an effective safety program. The expense account of injuries is relatively small to the corporation, however great it may prove to the unfortunate worker and to society, because under the compensation laws injury benefits are invariably far below the true economic value of the employee. Moreover, the firm with the high injury rate fares little worse than its competitors with smaller casualty lists. Under these circumstances it would seem as though a more adequate compensation to the worker, thereby increasing the employer's accident liability, together with a just system of merit rating having the effect of reducing the employer's premium for effective safety work, would serve as the greatest stimulus towards accident prevention.⁸

3. *Industrial-health service.* In addition to the legal requirements for the safety and protection of their workmen large industrial establishments are now beginning to see the advantages of industrial-health service both from

⁸Bowers, *op. cit.*, pp. 164-172.

an economic and a social standpoint. Thus it is not uncommon to find company programs for the physical welfare of their employees carried out through various services such as health or medical, sanitation, safety engineering, and visiting-nurse service. Other related services frequently found include housing, recreation, lunches, etc., all of which have a direct bearing upon the health of the worker.

The health service of the modern progressive industrial establishment provides for the physical examination of all accepted applicants for work, and the reëxamination of all those transferred from one department to another to determine their physical fitness for the new task. Workers who have some physical defect or who are engaged in such work as presents a special health hazard are periodically examined, and may be referred to the company dispensary for medical attention if necessary. Most establishments of any size maintain a dispensary or first-aid room. Here industrial accidents and cases of illness occurring among the employees are given immediate treatment and care. Every employee suffering an accident however slight or becoming ill while at work is ordinarily required to report at the dispensary for treatment. In a few instances a large corporation may even maintain a hospital for its employees and their families. The Southern Pacific Railroad has provided hospital service for its employees since 1867. For this service each employee contributes \$1.00 per month hospital dues, the company making up the balance.⁹ Medical or surgical attention for employees injured while at work is ordinarily provided for at the expense of the employer, even though it may be of long duration, through the operation of workmen's compensation acts. Medical care for employees in event of sickness is furnished gratuitously by many large companies. Sometimes this free service may even include dental work and

⁹Philip King Brown, "Industry's Answer," *Survey Graphic*, LXIII, 7, 398-401, 1930.

nursing service and embrace not only the employees but their families as well. Such is the case with the workers' medical service of the Endicott Johnson Corporation.¹⁰ More commonly, however, extensive medical service of this sort is financed by periodic dues from the employees supplemented by substantial contributions from the employer.

ADVANTAGES OF INDUSTRIAL-HEALTH SERVICE

The social value of industrial-health service is inestimable. The worker profits by the early discovery of disease and the likelihood of an earlier cure. If afflicted with an organic disease which can be controlled he may be shifted to such tasks as can be performed by him without strain or evil after effects. Moreover, he is provided with better medical care when sick and better surgical care when injured than he could normally afford. The employer benefits by a reduction of absenteeism resulting from the prevention of sickness, the prevention of infection following injuries, and proper treatment of serious injuries. A well-equipped medical service brings about a reduction of accident-insurance rates and assists in the preservation of the health of valued workers. It also helps to eliminate employees' complaints and inspires their confidence and good will. There is less need for training new employees at considerable cost and the general efficiency of the stable working force is greatly enhanced.¹¹ The cost of medical health service to the employer varies according to the types and hazards of the work and the extent of the service rendered. It is estimated that medical supervision commonly averages about \$5.00 per employee for one year,¹² but it is unlikely that any well-balanced service can be maintained for less than \$10.00 per capita.¹³ The cost per individual to whom the Endicott Johnson workers' medical

¹⁰Niles Carpenter, *Medical Care for 15,000 Workers and Their Families* (Washington, D. C.: Committee on the Cost of Medical Care, 1930), p. 10. Abstract of Publication No. 5.

¹¹W. Irving Clark, *Health Service in Industry* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1922), pp. 152-159.

¹²*Ibid.*, p. 151. Also Health Bulletin No. 5, Insurance Department, Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

¹³Wade Wright, *The Health of Office Workers* (New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1927), pp. 32-33.

service was available amounted to \$21.81 for the year 1928, but this must be taken as an example of a most complete and extensive medical service.¹⁴

Safety engineering naturally stands forth as one of the most important aspects of industrial health service. Truly, the impetus came from compulsory legal requirements for certain minimum standards of safety, but it is encouraging to note that large numbers of corporations now go far beyond these minimum standards and voluntarily spend vast sums to provide better and safer places of work for their employees. The fact that 75 per cent or more of all industrial accidents have been shown to be preventable definitely establishes the value of preventive work. Thus the Committee on the Elimination of Waste in Industry estimates that about 75 per cent of all accidents could be avoided.¹⁵ English authorities cite about the same ratio¹⁶ and in England compulsory safety legislation is far more comprehensive than in most American States. Many instances could be cited to illustrate both the economic and social values of safety engineering. The United States Steel Corporation over a period of 22 years, from 1906 to 1928, reduced its serious accident rate by more than 64 per cent, thereby saving 58,000 workers from serious injury. The Westinghouse Company of Pittsburgh operated 59 years with only twelve fatal accidents, and the Ford Motor Company over a period of twelve years reduced the injury rate 80 per cent notwithstanding the creation of new hazards by the introduction of swifter and more powerful machinery.¹⁷ In a single year the Bethlehem Steel Company reduced the number of days lost per worker 65 per cent.¹⁸ The achievements of the above mentioned corporations and a host of others are indicative of the growing trend in favor of safety engineering. In a number of industrial

¹⁴Carpenter, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

¹⁵American Engineering Council Committee on Elimination of Waste in Industry of the Federated American Engineering Societies, *Waste in Industry* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1921), p. 333.

¹⁶J. L. Cohen, *Workmen's Compensation in Great Britain* (London: Post Magazine, 1923), p. 46.

¹⁷Bowers, *op. cit.*, pp. 152-155.

¹⁸*Waste in Industry*, p. 333.

fields there has been a decided downward tendency in the frequency and severity of accidents. This is particularly noticeable in the iron and steel, railroad, and automotive industries. Accidents in 700 industrial establishments reporting to the National Safety Council showed a noteworthy decline from 1926 to 1928. Thus 50,772 accidents were reported in 1926, 42,398 in 1927, and 39,872 in 1928. During the same period fatalities declined 14.2 per cent, permanent injuries 27.4 per cent, and temporary injuries 21.3 per cent.¹⁹ Ten years ago there were over 2,500 deaths of employees annually in railroad operations. In 1930 the number was only 974. Similarly, the last decade has witnessed a reduction of more than 15 per cent in mining deaths.²⁰

Evidence at hand indicates that, regardless of industry, large companies have been more successful than small ones in preventing industrial injuries. Thus the National Safety Council points out that such injuries are only half as numerous, considering hours worked, in establishments employing 1,000 or more men, as in the smaller units with less than 100 men at work. In fact, each successive increase in the size of the establishment brings a corresponding decrease in the injury frequency rate. The same tendency is to be observed in the accident severity rates.²¹

PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE AND SAFETY

In addition to the Governmental agencies charged with the administration of laws regarding the safety of working places, equipment, and methods of work, various other public agencies have a part in the promotion of industrial hygiene and safety. The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor collects and publishes data regarding industrial accidents and occupational diseases. The Bureau of Mines conducts safety demonstrations and the United States Public Health Service has conducted various health surveys in industry. It would

¹⁹*Monthly Labor Review* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930), **xxx**, 2, p. 90-91.

²⁰Accident Facts, 1931, pp. 52-53.

²¹Accident Facts, 1931, pp. 53-54.

also serve a useful purpose if it were enabled to collect adequate reports on occupational diseases and industrial accidents, but this would be rendered difficult because of the wide variations in State practice. State industrial commissions often have the power to act as clearing houses for the dissemination of knowledge regarding industrial hygiene and to suggest safety codes and methods. A similar activity is frequently carried on by local chambers of commerce. In some cities industrial hygiene has become an important municipal function but, generally speaking, this is almost entirely a function of the State. In only a few instances do city health departments collect data on the number, character, or sanitation of industries within their borders. There is not, as a rule, much coöperation between city officers and the State industrial commissions, and information collected by a State agency regarding such matters as occupational diseases reported, insanitary workplaces, and the like is seldom relayed to local officers. In a few cities the health officer has authority to prevent industrial hazards, in a few others the health department may require notification of industrial diseases, and occasionally the department has the power to study and investigate industrial diseases. More often local governments are empowered to undertake educational measures.²² New York City maintains an occupational disease clinic in each borough.

PRIVATE AGENCIES FOR INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE AND SAFETY

In 1911 the American Museum of Safety was founded for the purpose of preventing injuries and eliminating industrial and other hazards. In the Museum are displayed safety devices of all descriptions. Two years later the National Safety Council was organized. This is a coöperative service organization dedicated to the advancement of accident prevention and now numbers several

²²"Municipal Health Department Practice for the Year 1923," Public Health Bulletin No. 164, United States Public Health Service (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1929), pp. 340-347.

thousand members including representatives of railroads, mining companies, manufacturing concerns, etc. It also embraces in its membership technical schools and chambers of commerce. Its functions are as follows: to inform members regarding safety methods; to assist in the standardization of safety devices; and to promote new schemes for the conservation of human life in industry. Industrial-member companies are divided into trade sections representing manufacturing groups having similar occupational hazards. Thus one finds an automotive section, a metals section with a number of subdivisions, and sections on rubber manufacturing, woodworking, and paper and pulp production, to mention but a few. The decline in the frequency and the severity of accidents in the various trade sections of the National Safety Council attests the value of its work and the genuine interest and coöperative spirit of its members in safety work. Another organization aiming at the simplification and the standardization of accident prevention is the American Engineering Standards Committee. The American Association for Labor Legislation and the American Public Health Association, which has a section on industrial hygiene, must also be mentioned for their work in this general field.

THE SAFETY ORGANIZATION

To be effective safety work within an industrial plant must be carefully organized and directed. The machinery which is set up for this purpose is commonly known as the safety organization. This is not to be thought of as something separate and apart from the regular operating organization of the factory but, rather, the adaptation of the regular operating organization to the purpose of accident prevention. The general functions of the safety organization are about as follows: to supervise and direct all safety activity; to determine standard methods of safe operation and standards for mechanical safeguarding; to

investigate accidents, fix responsibilities, and impose discipline when necessary; to plan and direct all parts of the educational campaign. Within a large industrial plant there may be several committees engaged in safety work. Thus the plant or general safety committee, which usually consists of the manager, department superintendent, plant engineers, employment manager, physician, and safety engineer, has general charge of the safety campaign. Its chief duties involve the receiving and reviewing of reports from the safety engineer, department, or subsidiary committees; formulating and revising company standards covering safe operating practices and equipment; inspections; planning special safety drives and selecting posters and literature on safety work. Direct coöperation of the employees is sought through the creation of workmen's safety committees. Such committees made up of the workers themselves are invaluable in discovering and correcting hazards which might otherwise escape the attention of the superintendent, foreman, or safety inspector, and are helpful in convincing the men that a large percentage of accidents are due to unsafe methods of work rather than to defective equipment. The workmen's committee makes frequent inspections, reports defective or unsafe equipment, and offers its own recommendations; its most important service is in ferreting out unsafe practices and suggesting safer ways of performing various tasks. The safety engineer's duty is to coördinate and make effective the entire safety program.

Safety meetings are frequently organized to develop a mass feeling for safety. Motion pictures and lantern slides afford excellent means of visual instruction showing how accidents happen and what preventive methods may be resorted to. Similarly, use is made of posters, accident record charts, photographs, and other material, and demonstrations may be given regarding fire-extinguishing materials, the use of goggles, protective clothing, and special safety equipment. Permanent signs of an instructional

or warning nature, safety messages in the form of occasional letters to employees, and safety items in the company magazine are other valuable expedients.²³

²³For a complete exposition of safety methods and safety organization see Sidney J. Williams, *The Manual of Industrial Safety* (Chicago: A. W. Shaw and Company, 1927), viii+207 pages; Fred G. Lange, *Handbook of Safety and Accident Prevention* (New York: The Engineering Magazine Company, 1926), xxiv+512 pages; Lewis A. DeBlois, *Industrial Safety Organization for Executive and Engineer* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1926), xiii+328 pages; H. W. Heinrich, *Industrial Accident Prevention* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1931), x+366 pages. E. George Payne, *Education in Accident Prevention* (New York: Lyons and Carnahan, 1919), 176 pages, furnishes excellent data on accident prevention in general as a part of the regular school instruction, which naturally is carried over to industry by the formation of proper attitudes and habits. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has published a number of valuable pamphlets known as the Industrial Safety Series.

REPORT OF CLUB SURVEY AT KEENE, NEW HAMPSHIRE

WALTER E. HAMMOND

A short time ago a group of people interested in the welfare of our youth met to discuss some of the problems pertaining to young folks that seemed to need some consideration. The suggestion was made that the various organizations interested in club work for boys and girls might help solve the problem of leisure time by expanding their programs. Representatives of these agencies objected on the ground that the city, including the children, was already "over-clubbed." They based their judgment for this statement on the fact that whenever an extra meeting of a particular association was desired, it was almost impossible not to conflict with a regular meeting of some other association to which some of their members likewise belonged. The question of the children being "over-clubbed" having been challenged it was felt desirable to carry on a survey of every boy and girl nine years of age and over to ascertain just how effective the present program was. As the superintendent of schools had been active in developing the club idea in connection with hobbies in the high school, he himself felt that an opportunity to check the effectiveness of his own program was before him and he gave his coöperation with the other field agencies to secure the desired information.

Tables accompanying this article were made up from the data obtained. The final percentages, 41.5 per cent for boys in no clubs and 39.87 per cent for girls in no clubs, tend to give an incorrect picture. School clubs are all held during school hours and can cause no conflict with outside activities. The fact that 72.8 per cent of the boys have no activity outside of school clubs and that 75.2 per cent of the girls are in a similar situation is no indication that the boys or girls at any age are "over-clubbed." A

summary of "club members" gives a total of 653 for all ages (boys). The figures show 324 boys out of 779 in no clubs or 455 in various kinds of clubs. Now subtracting the number (203) in school clubs from the 455 in various clubs we find but 252 boys in nonschool clubs. Dividing this number into the total club membership minus the number in school clubs only, we get the information that each boy attending clubs outside of school is a member of 1.7 clubs on the average. The fact is that some are members of as many as 6 different organizations. Certain types seem more attracted to club organizations than others.

SURVEY OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES—KEENE
Number of Boys and Girls Surveyed by Age Groups

Age	Girls	Boys
9.....	90	87
10.....	88	81
11.....	102	98
12.....	110	96
13.....	104	103
14.....	82	101
15.....	107	77
16.....	58	66
17.....	52	39
18.....	15	20
19.....	4	10
20.....	1	1
21.....	1	—
22.....	1	—
Total.....	815	779

SURVEY OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES—KEENE

Boys

Age	Sunday School	Church or School Club	Y. M. C. A.	Boy Scouts	DeMolay	Pioneers	Friendly Indian	Epworth League or C. E.	Other	Total
9.....	37	13	2	—	—	—	—	4	—	20
10.....	23	12	6	—	—	—	—	6	—	26
11.....	32	23	8	4	—	—	—	2	—	37
12.....	42	27	16	7	—	2	—	—	—	52
13.....	46	76	19	23	—	14	2	3	—	137
14.....	30	67	24	16	—	6	—	2	—	115
15.....	23	64	18	7	1	7	—	—	—	97
16.....	19	49	19	5	5	3	—	—	—	82
17.....	6	40	9	2	6	—	—	—	4	61
18.....	—	15	1	1	1	—	—	—	—	18
19.....	1	2	2	—	2	—	—	—	—	7
20.....	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Total.....	268	381	124	65	15	32	14	8	5	653

Total number boys surveyed—779.

Total number boys in school clubs only—203.

Total number boys in no clubs—324.

Per cent in no activity outside of school clubs—72.8.

Per cent in no clubs—41.5.

SURVEY OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES—KEENE
Girls

Age	Sunday School	Church or School Club	Y. W. C. A.	World Wide Guild	Epworth League	Pathfinders	4-H	Rainbow	Salvation Army	Girl Scouts	Other	Total
9.....	44	18	1	—	—	5	—	—	1	—	—	69
10.....	38	13	2	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	63
11.....	50	34	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	98
12.....	43	39	4	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	107
13.....	40	84	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	148
14.....	34	82	—	4	—	—	—	6	—	—	—	148
15.....	46	113	—	—	1	—	—	7	—	—	—	188
16.....	30	62	1	—	3	—	—	14	—	—	—	188
17.....	14	47	—	—	—	1	—	9	—	—	—	115
18.....	6	13	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	27
19.....	2	6	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9
20.....	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
21.....	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
22.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total.	347	516	8	14	10	26	24	40	2	44	19	1050

Total number girls surveyed—815.

Total number girls in school clubs only—288.

Total number girls in no clubs—325.

Per cent in no activity outside of school—75.2.

Per cent in no clubs—39.87.

Outside of the high school, the schools themselves are not functioning any too well in developing organized groups of children. The high-school plan will be carried into the grades in the hope that being given a "taste" of organized club work we may find our youth more eager to engage in those pursuits outside of their school time and club activities may actually function in making the best use of leisure time.

It might be interesting to note that the scouting program as developed here was claimed to be sufficient to care for the needs of the city. Boy scouts take care of boys from 12 to 18. We have 433 such boys in Keene. According to the table 65 boys are being reached by this organization. Arranged in the following form the facts are more evident.

Ages	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Available boys.....	96	103	101	77	66	39	20
Reached by B. S. A.....	7	23	16	7	5	2	1

The Boy Scout organization was not selected to show the field still untouched by them because they were failing more than other groups but rather because they have been the first to respond to the situation. The New Hampshire State Council of the Boy Scout Association soon

meets in Keene to formulate plans for extending the scouting organization here. The results of the survey are included in this article to encourage others to make similar surveys leading to possibly similar results. Incidentally it might be well to add that it was neither the largest nor the most influential organization that precipitated this study but a little group reaching 24 girls; namely, our 4-H Club Workers. The willingness to "do" seems to be present on the outside but there are many difficulties to be overcome in "locating" the available children. Why not coöperate in acquainting these outside workers with the available children? They would find securing such data impossible without our aid. Let us, as school superintendents, help!

EDUCATING THE EDUCATORS—IN-SERVICE TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES FOR COLLEGE TEACHERS

ARCHIE M. PALMER

The demands made upon our colleges and universities, especially since the World War, for an enlarged and more effective service have stimulated a widespread professional interest in problems of higher education. One evidence of this interest is the decided movement on the part of those engaged in college administration and college teaching to seek guidance and improvement in their chosen work. In response to this demand professional courses dealing with problems in this field are to be found listed in nearly forty university and college catalogues.

Not only do faculty members and graduate students planning to enter the college teaching profession seek subject-matter courses in their chosen fields, but they also demand professional courses designed to improve their teaching technique and to provide them with a broad conception of the college enterprise. College administrators are also being attracted by the opportunities offered for the study and discussion of problems in the field of higher education.

Systematic instruction in college administration and college teaching was first given at Teachers College of Columbia University and at Purdue University. In 1923-1924 Teachers College offered a general course on college administration for graduate students interested in the problems of the American college, while that same year Purdue University offered a course, *Psychology of Learning and Teaching Applied to College Work*, intended primarily for its own assistants and instructors but also occasionally attended since its inception by those of professorial rank and by graduate students who had had teaching experience. The course at Purdue, which is given only in alter-

nate years, is designed to review the psychology of learning and teaching and to make a critical study of modern methods and techniques of teaching in colleges.

The variety and scope of the courses on the organization and administration of higher education, which have now been offered at Teachers College of Columbia University for the past nine years, have been steadily increasing. During that period opportunity has been offered for the study and discussion of a wide range of problems in the field of higher education to some 540 instructors, administrative officers, and others interested in higher educational institutions. The positions they hold are indicative of the types of college officials who have taken advantage of these courses. Included in the group who have studied at this particular institution are 45 college presidents, 66 deans, 30 registrars, 6 deans of men, 19 deans of women, 36 heads of departments, 128 college professors and instructors, 4 directors of research, 3 directors of personnel, 5 assistants to presidents, 4 librarians, 2 treasurers, 2 business managers, and a number of others in various college or other educational positions.

The summer vacation seems to be the most popular time for conducting professional courses on higher education. Not only are college administrators and college teachers more likely to be able to attend courses then, but there is also better opportunity for enlisting the services of specialists and experienced workers in the field to direct the work of these groups during the summer months.

Twenty-seven institutions offered courses on various aspects of college administration and college teaching during the past summer. Included in the group were the Universities of California, Chicago, Cincinnati, Colorado, Iowa, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pittsburgh, Southern California, Washington, and Wisconsin; Duke, Indiana, New York, Northwestern, Ohio State, Stanford, and Western Reserve Universities; Colorado State Teachers

College, George Peabody College for Teachers, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, and Teachers College of Columbia University.

The regular teaching staffs of these institutions were augmented by a number of specialists and experienced workers in the college administrative and teaching fields. Among those giving their services last summer were a number of college presidents, including Frank L. McVey of the University of Kentucky, George F. Zook of the University of Akron, Homer P. Rainey of Bucknell University, and Wendell S. Brooks of Intermountain Union College; former presidents Clarence C. Little of the University of Michigan, George A. Works of the Connecticut Agricultural College, and A. M. Stowe of the University of the City of Toledo; Vice President C. S. Yoakum of the University of Michigan; and a number of presidents of teachers colleges. Deans H. D. Sheldon of the University of Oregon, Shelton Phelps of George Peabody College, H. L. Smith of Indiana University, Charles E. Friley of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, and A. J. Brumbaugh of the University of Chicago also conducted courses this past summer, as did Registrars Ezra L. Gillis of the University of Kentucky, J. R. Robinson of George Peabody College, and many other experienced survey and research workers in the field of higher education.

While the offerings at most of the institutions were limited to a single course or two on selected phases of the field, more comprehensive and varied programs were available at several institutions, particularly at the University of Chicago, Teachers College of Columbia University, the University of Michigan, Ohio State University, and the University of Pittsburgh. Basic or general courses on the organization and administration of the American college and university, as well as specific problems of instruction and of the professional duties of the various administrative officers, both academic and business, were offered at

these five institutions. General courses were also given at the University of Colorado, Indiana University, the University of Kentucky, the University of Minnesota, New York University, Duke University, and Western Reserve University.

In addition to the sequence of courses offered at the University of Chicago an institute for administrative officers of higher institutions was held. The central theme of the institute last summer was recent trends in American college education. A conference for the discussion of both internal and external problems of the junior college was held at the University of Pittsburgh.

Considerable attention was given to questions of college instruction and its improvement in the courses offered this past summer, both in the basic courses and also in specific courses on this subject, which were conducted at a number of institutions. Courses on training-school problems in the professional education of teachers, intended primarily for those concerned with teacher-training institutions, were offered at the Universities of Chicago, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, the Colorado State Teachers College, Teachers College of Columbia University, and George Peabody College for Teachers. These courses included the consideration of both administrative and instructional problems.

Courses of particular value to those concerned with or interested in the office of the college registrar were offered at the Universities of Chicago and Kentucky, at George Peabody College for Teachers, and at Teachers College. Special courses on the financial and business administration of higher institutions were offered at the University of Chicago and at Teachers College. Instruction in publicity and public relations and in vocational guidance in colleges was also given at Teachers College. Instruction in the work of deans of men, deans of women, and other college personnel officers was announced among the offerings at the Universities of Chicago, Iowa, Michigan, Pittsburgh,

and Southern California, New York University, and Teachers College of Columbia University.

The following institutions offered specific courses on the junior college last summer: the Universities of California, Chicago, Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Southern California, and Washington; Duke, New York, Northwestern, Ohio State, and Stanford Universities; George Peabody College for Teachers and Teachers College of Columbia University. These courses were intended both for administrators and instructors in junior colleges and for those interested in learning about this important educational movement. Superintendents of schools, principals, and directors of junior colleges, as well as professors of secondary education, were among those conducting summer offerings in this field. During the regular school year similar courses on problems related specifically to the junior college have also been offered at the Universities of Alabama, Arkansas, Cincinnati, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, and Texas; and at George Washington, Stanford, and Yale Universities.

Although three of the twenty institutions, which in 1930 announced summer courses on the professional study of problems of higher education, did not offer such courses this past summer the number of institutions was augmented by ten new ones, bringing the total number of institutions announcing such summer courses in 1931 to twenty-seven. The individual course offerings have also been expanded materially both in number and in scope, and in addition to these specific professional courses there are offered, both in summer sessions and during the academic year, many courses on the history, principles, and philosophy of education and in particular subject-matter fields which are of value and interest to college teachers and administrators.

Those able to absent themselves from their official duties during the regular academic year find general courses on college-administrative and teaching problems offered at

the Universities of Chicago, Cincinnati, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, Notre Dame, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pittsburgh, and Southern California; at Cornell, George Washington, Indiana, New York, Ohio State, Stanford, Western Reserve, and Yale Universities; at George Peabody College for Teachers, Iowa State College, Pennsylvania State College, and Teachers College of Columbia University; and in alternate years at Purdue University. Some years ago a seminar in problems of higher education was started at Harvard University by the dean of the Graduate School of Education but, while successful, it was discontinued because of the pressure of other duties.

Special libraries in the field of higher education have been established at a number of institutions as valuable by-products of the instructional phase of these professional courses. Bibliographies on the different aspects of college administration have been compiled. Significant research studies have been made and publications, including Ph.D. dissertations, have resulted. At several institutions the students in the courses as well as the staff have been afforded opportunity to participate in surveys of individual colleges, of groups of colleges, and of entire State systems of education.

These summer sessions conducted on college and university campuses have provided an immeasurable stimulus to the professional growth of college faculties and a steadily increasing number of college administrators and teachers have been taking advantage of the opportunities for in-service improvement offered during the long vacation period. A decade ago the principal groups served in summer sessions were undergraduate students, many of them making up scholastic deficiencies, but now the predominating group is composed of teachers and other professional men and women who are unable to attend courses during the academic year.

That so many institutions are making this positive endeavor to meet a real need and to develop a science of

college administration is most encouraging. Furthermore, the heads of schools of education at a number of other institutions have indicated to the writer a keen interest in the introduction of professional courses in college administration and teaching, so there is every indication that the number of such courses will steadily increase.

TEXTBOOKS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

DAVID SNEDDEN

Professor Bernard's article in *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* for October 1931 suggests to the present commentator certain opportunities for improved "pedagogy" which he thinks are being woefully neglected in current developments in college classes of the super-rich subject of social psychology.

Professor Bernard seems to approve that the purpose of the writer of a textbook in this field which derives from a conviction "that only very few students are going to be investigators in the science of social psychology, but that perhaps ninety-nine out of each hundred will take the course for the purpose of understanding human nature and functional human and group relationship."

Amen to that! At least in all liberal-college or arts-and-science university departments the expected functionings of this course should be conspicuously in the field of liberal, as contrasted with preprofessional, educations. And, having that purpose in view, Professor Bernard seems to favor the textbook that "sets forth the results of investigation without much reference to the methods by which these results were achieved." Surely all pedagogically minded college instructors—may their tribe increase—can well approve of that ideal.

For purposes of this paper, then, let us assume that the course or courses based on the textbooks under consideration are regarded as contributions to the liberal (nonvocational) educations of undergraduates. But liberal educations, as the present writer conceives them, embrace several ranges or genera of considerably diverse objectives, of which the two classes of chief concern to the social psychologist are those contributing respectively to personal culture (capacities for superior personal utilization of the

finer things of life) and to superior social coöperations—patriotic, democratic, familistic, etc.

Eventually an advanced science of educational values will strongly indicate the desirability of offering to liberal-college students two quite distinctive courses in social psychology—the first to minister to those higher curiosities and interests in human-group action wherever found, and quite without practical purpose; and the second rather directly framed to provide the insights and ideals by which the youth of today may be helped to become the superior coöperators of a few years hence in voting, in dealing as citizens with crime, vice, and poverty, in helping towards the building of fine family life, and in sharing the alert citizen's responsibilities of urban planning, international harmonizations, and other large-scale social constructions and supervisions.

But it is too early to expect such scientific differentiation of objectives and courses as yet. So let us proceed to consider the characteristics of a single course using one or more textbooks.

Most textbooks at high-school or college levels which aim to be really "comprehensive" seem certain to be pretty dreary affairs. "A textbook that is intended to be a treatise on social psychology should, it seems to me, cover the whole range of psychological processes or behavior adjustments in society," says Professor Bernard in the article referred to. But to do that, as the field is now expanding, the textbook will have to be as compressed and dried-up as a mummy or else it should run to 20,000 pages or more. Of course a twenty-thousand-page reference work, in so new and fascinating a field as social psychology, would serve as a treasure house to a pedagogically wise instructor who had effectively planned, for example, a one-semester course and who used the treatise deliberately as a source of reference readings. But many younger instructors are not independent enough to do that.

Hence, it is suggested that at least some of our more

able social psychologists should undertake to produce guides or handbooks for young college teachers and their students, which handbooks should be neither encyclopaedic treatises nor yet highly compressed and inevitably desiccated outlines—and what plagues to freshness and interest outlines or dried-up syllabi can become!

But the foregoing considerations are forcing us at last to close grip with the basic problems of all: What should be the specific objectives of a liberal (merged cultural and civistic) one-semester course in social psychology? Upon what materials should it most draw? And what methods of presentation should prove especially fruitful? Granted either considerable agreement of social psychologists on answers to these, or else much originaive ingenuity on the part of a path breaker among them, we certainly have indicated the scope and form of the proposed textbook, have we not? Towards adding to the gayety of nations let the writer express his opinions on the above questions, in view of the fact that in so much of his efforts to derive and apply to educational policy making the useful and usable findings of the social sciences—and certainly including much of social psychology—he has so often been confronted by problems closely akin to those to be solved by the social psychologist in trying to construct and present really functional liberal courses in his field.

The specific objectives of the one-semester course should not include attempts to survey the entire field—of distant life and near life, primitive life and sophisticated life, war life and peace life, working life and play life, city life and rural life, married life and celibate life. Even in much less complicated fields such as physics, geology, or biology the liberalizing educational effects of one-semester courses are killed by the logical determinations of instructors to achieve comprehensiveness.

Let us think of the course as we might think of a three months' trip to Europe—as a kind of gigantic sampling. But sampling of what? Well, first, the areas, places, and

topics that promise most of appreciational enrichment to our kind of persons in our times. And second, samplings of the areas now practicable of access.

Or let us think analogically of a one-semester's course in American poetry, with its thousands of possible authors and volumes, its hundreds of thousands of poems. What are the not too many which are most significant—significant for our day's historical interpretations, perspectives, interests in crises and transitions, changes of popular sentiment?

Next, what materials? Here the present writer thinks Dr. Bernard too modest, too restrained in his outlook. What he has to say about limitations in the sources and in the applications of the results of the experimental method is well taken.

But, for pedagogical purposes, why does he not give far more attention to the world of each student's own experiences? Why, too, does he not find far more analogies between effective methods for social psychology and those of geology than with those of chemistry?

Each student in a course in social psychology has lived all his days amidst the cohesions, the tensions, and the oppositions of persons in social groups. He has seen and shared in much of jealousies, friendlinesses, dominations, herd formations, rivalries, lusts, hero worshipings, intolerances, and hundreds of other nameable and unnameable human reactions. He himself has been conscious in scores of ways of those appetites, repulsions, longings, and apprehensions which, at least to the partly informed mind, must seem a part of instinctive or original nature because it is so difficult—perhaps impossible, in spite of the psychologists—to ascribe their origins to sources in the persons or acts of other human beings.

Even the unreflective student has personally experienced or been a near witness to hundreds of the social relationships which tie together mother and child, husband and wife, chums, friends, business partners, employer and employee, leader and follower. And, hardly less, is he rich

in experiences, personal or secondhand, of the causes, processes, and effects of strains and disruptions in such relationships?

Like a Western prospector who has "studied every inch of Mohave county," though, as yet he be no geologist, or like a Ulysses who "is a part of all that he has met—cities, councils, governments," the student is replete with the raw materials out of which the amateur social psychologist—that is, the practitioner of culture and civism—can readily be fashioned, provided the instructor draw upon and organize these highly localized and personal riches rather than spend most of his time fetching argosies of strange goods from afar.

Which brings us to the methods, first to guide in organizing the course—and the handbook for the younger instructors—and, second, in pursuing its particular purposes by day-to-day lectures, field observations, reading of the results of research, and even more discreet reading of such of those intuitive interpreters—some essayists, some novelists, some dramatists, some poets—who are able to reach into the hearts of things. How many decades of social psychological research will ever give us what that curious seer, Bernard Shaw, has given us in his preface to *Saint Joan*?

But it requires very fine techniques to tap, interpret, generalize, and reapply for further growths the rich, already acquired experiences and the still hungry outreachings of youthful learners in these fields. Unfortunately, most Ph.D. and college-instructorship-bred teachers are still fairly contemptuous of any sustained study of the "arts" of good teaching methods—but that condition will improve.

In certain of his own books on educational sociology the writer has employed, in face of the doubtings of publishers but with much success at least in his own classes, various kinds of graded questions under the title *Interpretations of (Personal) Experience*. It is entirely prac-

ticable, of course, to devise on any topic of everyday life a series of leading, even cross-examining, questions which will induce the student to recall occurrences and valuations in his own life or that observed in others, and to pass on to a series of tentative inferences and even generalizations—and so prepare himself apperceptively for vital response to, and assimilation of, the instructor's more fundamental presentations.

The writer believes that during the next few years decisive and perhaps rapid trends will take place in the curricula of secondary and collegiate liberal educations towards the use of present-day and future problems, the living materials of today, and the methods of using to the full first-hand experiences of learners. We shall in literatures leave the classical behind us, in the sciences we shall use appreciation-producing rather than logically organized approaches, and through the mental and social sciences we shall seek realistic interpretations of our own personal lives and group associations, leaving here, too, much of old history far to the rear.

In pursuit of these ideals there is no good reason why social psychology should not provide some of the most fruitful courses in the new liberal education.

AN ATTEMPT TO RELATE SOCIOLOGY TO TEACHERS' ACTIVITIES

FLORENCE ZELENY¹

In an attempt to eliminate to some extent the influence of personal bias (not necessarily group bias) from the determination of the content of a course in educational sociology, the Charters-Waples "Master List of Teachers' Activities"² was sent to twenty-eight of the twenty-nine editors and contributing editors of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* with the request that they indicate on the check list the activities of teachers which they think may be performed more effectively through a knowledge of sociology. Eighteen or 62 per cent of the group responded to the request. These opinions were organized and listed in a master table entitled, "Sociological Aspects of the Teacher's Job."³ It is to be observed that these opinions are expressed in terms of the activities teachers are actually found to perform.

It is believed that these activities may be used to help guide in the organization of functional courses in educational sociology. There probably are activities that may be added to a course which teachers should perform but do not. This study is not to be considered as final but, rather, suggestive of the sociological aspects of teachers' activities and of problems for research in educational sociology.

The master table shows 197 activities from the complete list of 913 activities listed by Charters and Waples. These 197 activities were checked by 11 (61 per cent) or

¹This study was prepared by the author under the direction of Ross L. Finney, University of Minnesota, and L. D. Zeleny, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn. It is to serve as a guide for determining the content of a forthcoming text in educational sociology by Drs. Finney and Zeleny.

²W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929), xx+666 pp. This extensive study of the activities of teachers was financed by the Commonwealth Fund in order to procure a functional study of teaching.

³It was finally necessary to omit the complete table from this article due to space limitations.

more of the 18 experts. Following each activity listed is a check if it was ranked for importance in deciles 1-5, inclusive, by a representative group of educators, a second check if ranked for difficulty in deciles 1-5; and a third check if it was ranked for desirability of pre-service training in deciles 1-5. The decile rankings given by the educators for importance, difficulty, and pre-service training were taken from the summary tables B, C, and D of *The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study*, but for this study it was necessary to find the arithmetical mean of the rankings given by the educators for each of the activities in the list.⁴ Those evaluating the activities were University of Chicago graduates, city high-school principals, supervisors of practice teaching (secondary grades), college instructors of secondary education, city junior-high-school teachers, intermediate teachers, kindergarten-primary teachers, rural teachers, city elementary-school principals, city supervisors of elementary grades, supervisors of practice teaching in elementary grades, and college instructors in elementary education; and in the ranking for importance, teachers in elementary experimental schools are added to the list.

Each activity in the list that 15-18 of the experts checked is starred to show its probable importance and those activities which in addition to being checked by 15-18 experts are ranked in deciles 1-5 for importance, difficulty, and desirability of pre-service training are double starred.

MASTER TABLE I (ABRIDGED)

Sociological Aspects of the Teacher's Job

(This abridged table only gives the activities considered important by the sociologists or by the sociologists and the educators. It includes the starred and double starred items only.)

*Selecting objectives

**Planning, selection, and organization of subject matter

**Planning methods of developing interests

**Planning methods of evaluating pupils' needs, interests, and achievements

*Planning methods of developing teachers' personal traits

⁴Charters and Waples, *op. cit.*, p. 536-620.

- **Defining general objectives for the grade or subject
- **Evaluating objectives
- **Defining objectives in the conduct of pupils' classroom and extra-classroom activities
- *Explaining to pupils reasons for the performance of classroom and extraclassroom activities.
- *Complying with social conventions
- *Acting courteously towards others
- *Respecting desires and welfare of others
- *Meeting personal obligations as a member of the school
- *Acting courteously towards teachers
- *Conforming to school customs
- **Determining traits to be taught
- *Protecting school community
- *Establishing cordial relations with pupils
- *Obtaining information about pupils
- **Giving advice and information to parents
- *Giving advice and information to occupational groups and social organizations
- **Giving assistance to parents
- *Giving assistance to occupational groups and social organizations
- *Obtaining advice and information from parents, occupational groups, and social organizations
- *Establishing cordial relations with parents
- *Developing a coöperative spirit in occupational groups
- *Helping to enforce child-welfare laws against occupational groups
- *Acting as mediator between parents, occupations groups, social organizations, and between members of the community at large
- *Participation in meetings of parents

The original master table reveals the fact that 197 activities or 21.6 per cent of the complete list of 913 activities in the Check List of Teachers' Activities were checked by at least 11 of the 18 editors and contributing editors of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* who participated in this study as those activities which could probably be performed more effectively through a knowledge of sociology.

In division I, Teachers' Activities Involved in Classroom Instruction, subdivision A, Teaching Subject Matter, 23 or 32.4 per cent of the 71 activities listed by Charters and Waples were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges; 7 of the activities were starred; *i.e.*, checked by 15-18 judges; and 6 were double starred; *i.e.*, checked by 15-18

judges and ranked in deciles 1-5 for importance, difficulty, and desirability of pre-service training.

In division I, subdivision B, Teaching Pupils to Study, 3 of the 37 activities were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges.

In division II, Teachers' Activities Involved in School and Class Management, subdivision A, Activities Involved in Recording and Reporting Facts Concerning Pupils, of the 153 activities listed only 1 was checked by 11 of the 18 judges.

In division II, subdivision B, Activities Involving Contacts with Pupils, 71 or 34.6 per cent of the 205 activities listed were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges. Of these 77 activities, 16 were starred and 2 double starred.

In division III, Activities Involving Supervision of Pupils' Extraclass Activities (exclusive of activities involved in school and classroom management), 55 or 37.5 per cent of the 146 activities listed, were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges; 6 were starred and none were double starred.

In division IV, Activities Involving Relationships with the Personnel of the School Staff, none of the 200 activities listed was checked by 11 of the 18 judges.

In division V, Teachers' Activities Involving Relations with Members of School Community, 43 or 100 per cent of the 43 activities listed were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges. Of these activities 17 were starred and 2 double starred.

In division VI, Activities Concerned with Professional and Personal Advancement, 1 of the 38 activities listed was checked by 11 of the 18 judges.

In division VII, Activities in Connection with School Plant and Supplies, none of the 20 activities listed was checked by 11 of the 18 judges.

The preceding analysis, which shows the relative importance of the major divisions of the Charters-Waples list according to the educational sociologists, may be summar-

ized and compared with rankings of the same activities made by the large group of educators represented in the Charters-Waples study. This is accomplished in tables II and III. Table II indicates the activities checked by the educational sociologists and table III indicates various rankings of the educators in general.

TABLE II
The Activities Checked by Educational Sociologists

Divisions of check list	No. of activities in the division	Activities checked by 11 of the 18 sociologists		Activities starred		No. of activities double starred
		No.	Per cent of total No. in list	No.	Per cent	
Div. I—Sub. A.....	71	23	32.4	7	30.4	6
Div. I—Sub. B.....	37	3	8.1	—	—	—
Div. II—Sub. A.....	153	1	—	—	—	—
Div. II—Sub. B.....	205	71	34.6	16	22.5	2
Div. III.....	146	55	37.5	6	10.9	—
Div. IV.....	200	—	—	—	—	—
Div. V.....	43	43	100.0	17	39.5	2
Div. VI.....	38	1	—	—	—	—
Div. VII.....	20	—	—	—	—	—
Totals.....	913	197	—	46	—	10

The number and percentage of selected activities in each division ranked by educators in deciles 1-5 for three of the criteria; *i.e.*, importance, difficulty, and desirability of pre-service training. Those ranked in deciles 1-5 for two of the criteria, those ranked in deciles 1-5 for one criterion, and those not ranked in deciles 1-5 for any of the criteria.

TABLE III

Divisions of check list	Activities ranked in deciles 1- 5 for 3 criteria		Activities ranked in deciles 1- 5 for 2 criteria		Activities ranked in deciles 1- 5 for 1 criterion		Activities not ranked in deciles 1-5 for any criteria	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Div. I—Sub. A...	17	72.9	2	8.7	4	17.3	—	—
Div. I—Sub. B...	2	66.7	—	—	1	33.3	—	—
Div. II—Sub. A...	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Div. II—Sub. B...	13	18.3	15	21.1	28	39.4	15	21.1
Div. III.....	1	1.8	16	29.1	17	30.9	21	38.2
Div. IV.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Div. V.....	3	6.9	10	23.3	13	30.2	17	39.5
Div. VI.....	—	—	1	100	—	—	—	—
Div. VII.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Totals.....	36	—	44	—	63	—	54	—

102 or 51.7 per cent of the 197 selected activities were ranked by educators in deciles 1-5 for importance and 72 or 36.5 per cent were ranked in deciles 1-5 for difficulty.

Further analysis of the master table reveals certain

major activities of teachers to which sociology may make a contribution. These are presented in Table IV. Column 1 indicates the percentage of the selected activities in relation to the entire list of activities in the division. Column 2 indicates the percentage of the activities in the division that were checked by 15-18 of the judges, and column 3 indicates the percentage ranked by the Charters-Waples group of educators in deciles 1-5 for importance.

TABLE IV
Major Activities of Teachers to which Sociology May Make a Contribution

<i>Activities involving:</i>	<i>Per cent of entire division</i>	<i>Per cent checked by 15-18 judges</i>	<i>Per cent ranked by educators in deciles 1-5 for importance</i>
1. Relations with members of school community.	100.0	39.5	23.2
2. Supervision of pupils' extraclass activities.....	37.5	10.0	27.3
3. Contacts with pupils.....	34.6	22.5	73.3
4. Teaching subject matter.....	32.4	30.4	95.7

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

It should be clearly recognized that the conclusions are based on opinions of experts and subject to all the limitations of opinions studied; that a check placed after one activity has not necessarily meant the same as a check placed after another activity; that the number of experts coöperating is small; that the study has not found new activities teachers ought to perform (Charters and Waples found, however, that 25 professors of education and their graduate students could not add activities to the list); that some of the activities may be valueless (these will show low decile rankings); that the activities checked do not necessarily constitute the basis for an entire course in educational sociology; and, that the activities need to be studied from other approaches as well as the sociological. It is probable that sociologists may add some new activities to the list that educators would fail to add.

While 102 of the 197 selected activities of the master table were ranked by representative groups of educators in deciles 1-5 for importance, it may be possible that sociologists, because of a different point of view, might have ranked more as important. The same is true for the

difficulty ranking. Also, if educational sociology is taught in the schools as a study of the community with students carrying on investigations in connection with the course, more of these activities might have been ranked by sociologists in deciles 1-5 for desirability of pre-service training than were ranked thus by the educators.

The present study may suggest the possible content for the construction of part of a course on educational sociology—the course aiming to include the principles and facts, a knowledge of which is important for the performance of the activities selected, and which will include efficient methods for the performance of these activities. Or suggestions for the performance of the activities may serve as illustrations of the basic principles. Or one may check an existing course in educational sociology to determine whether it contains the principles and methods necessary to perform the selected activities and one can note whether the activities treated in the course are those ranking high for importance and difficulty, and note whether the activities ranked important and difficult are the ones that receive the most attention in the course.

This study may also reveal the need of further research in the attempt to determine more effective methods of performing the activities.

AN EVALUATION OF THE OUTSIDE READING INTERESTS OF A GROUP OF SENIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

WILLIAM R. CAIN and FRANCIS J. BROWN

This study is an evaluation of the outside reading interests of adolescent children. The group studied were students in the sophomore and senior years of a senior high school in a suburban town in northern New Jersey.

The list of books read by the students was procured during the regular activities period. On specially prepared forms, so arranged that the students knew that any possibility of identification was eliminated, each child listed all of the books read during the summer vacation and the first three months of the school year exclusive of school assignments.

Table I gives the total and average number of books read by each pupil in the sophomore and senior years of the high school.

TABLE I

	<i>Total number of books read</i>	<i>Average number read by each pupil</i>
Sophomore girls.....	780	2.7
Sophomore boys.....	679	2.4
Senior girls.....	473	2.9
Senior boys.....	391	1.2

These books were classified in three ways: first, according to those found in the published list of the National Council of Teachers of English; second, according to those written by authors listed in the published list just mentioned; and third, according to the value assigned to them by the writers of this paper.

In this last classification the books were ranked according to their merit in four groups: first, those which are very good; second, those which possess some merit; third, those which are worthless but harmless; and fourth, those which are harmful.

In an effort to make this classification as objective as

possible a number of means was used. First, the pupils' list was checked against the list of books for home reading published in December 1930 by the National Council of Teachers of English. Second, the *Book Review Digest* was referred to in the case of many of the books. Third, as many book reviews as could be found in the book-review section of *The New York Times* were used. In addition to using these sources of information the writers checked over the list with several librarians and a teacher of English. Many of the books and authors were also discussed with other teachers and friends who were familiar with them in an effort to get as broad a viewpoint as possible.

This ranking, based upon personal judgment and the sources of information mentioned above, may be justified for several reasons. There is no published book list which ranks the books according to their merit. The Council of English Teachers' list attempts to label the books as suitable for freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors, but this method of listing is of little value. There is no book suitable only for an "average" sophomore or an "average" senior as was proved by the investigation upon which this paper is based. Sophomore and senior tastes run from such authors as Alger, Chadwick, and Hope to Shakespeare, Dickens, Darwin, O'Neill, and George Bernard Shaw. Furthermore, no one published list contains all of the books listed by these pupils.

CLASSIFICATION OF BOOKS

First Classification. Books read by the students which appear in the published list of the National Council of Teachers of English.

Sophomore girls	149 books or 22.8 per cent
Sophomore boys	145 books or 22.6 per cent
Senior girls	79 books or 16.7 per cent
Senior boys	61 books or 15.6 per cent

Second Classification. Books written by authors who are included in the published list of the National Council of

Teachers of English. (This includes the books of the first classification.)

Sophomore girls	294 books or 45.2 per cent
Sophomore boys	277 books or 43.2 per cent
Senior girls	191 books or 40.4 per cent
Senior boys	158 books or 46.0 per cent

Third Classification. Books ranked by the writers of this paper according to their merit.

In some instances in which the authors' names were not given and in which the titles were too general to permit any attempt to determine the author, no information could be obtained about the books. The following answers given by some pupils will illustrate this: *The Devil, Rose, Ten Novels, Arctic Exploration, Ancient Rome, Evolution, Fish, Cleopatra*. There were 323 such answers or 14 per cent of the total omitted from the calculations in this classification.

No attempt was made to rank any book as to its value to an "average" sophomore or an "average" high-school pupil. As was stated previously, the reading range of this group is very extensive. Therefore, the books are ranked according to their literary and, in the case of some non-fiction books, to their utilitarian values. In ranking fiction, the emotional appeal, the intellectual appeal, the treatment of details, characterization, structure, style, etc., were considered. In ranking nonfiction, the author's purpose, the veracity, etc., were also considered.

In some cases different books written by the same author have been given different ranks and the author will therefore be mentioned in two groups.

Group 1. Books ranked as very good. The following books are representative of this group:

Tale of Two Cities, Dickens. ✓
Count of Monte Cristo, Dumas.
Haunted Bookshop, Morley. ✓
All Quiet on the Western Front, Remarque.
Main Street, Lewis.
Laughing Boy, La Farge.
Jalna, de la Roche.
Life of a Cowboy, James.
My Autobiography, Twain.
Napoleon, Ludwig.

The following are some of the authors whose books are included in this group: Shakespeare, Hugo, Verne, Fielding, Cooper, Maurois, Strachey, Barrie, Sienkiewicz, Shaw, Masfield, O'Neill, Erskine, Tarkington, Stevenson.

Group 2. Books ranked as having some merit. Representative books of this group are:

Sherlock Holmes, Doyle.
Forever Free, Morrow.
Dr. Nye, Lincoln.
Red Knight of Germany, Gibbons.
On the Bottom, Ellsberg.
Charlie Chan Carries On, Biggers.
Hangman's House, Byrne.
Vagabond Journey Around the World, Franck.

Books by the following authors are also representative of this group: Arnold Bennett, Zane Grey, London, Ferber, Atherton, G. Stratton Porter, Hemon, Boyd, Churchill, Wharton, Norris, Rinehart.

Group 3. Books ranked as worthless but harmless. Representative books of this group are:

Car of Croesus, Poole.
The Iron Puddler, Davis.
Chances, Gibbs.
Bar 20, Mulford.
God's Country, Curwood.
The Man They Hanged, Chambers.
Potter and the Clay, Hooper.
Big Money, Wodehouse.
Left Tackle Todd, Chadwick.
Burning Beauty, Bailey.

The following are some of the authors whose books are also representative of this group: Wright, Grey, Rohmer, Wallace, Oppenheim, Biggers, Altshelter, Van Dine, Rinehart, London, Beach, Norris.

Group 4. Books ranked as harmful. The following books are representative of this group:

Al Capone—Biography of a Self-Made Man, Pasley.
Louis Beretti, Clarke.
It, Glyn.
Man and Maid, Glyn.
Millie, Clarke.

Outside Reading of Senior-High-School Pupils 441

Strangers May Kiss, Parrott.

War Nurse, Anonymous.

Ex-wife, Anonymous.

Ex-husband, Anonymous.

The per cent of books read, falling in each group on the basis of this classification, is shown in Table II below:

TABLE II
Per Cent of Books in Each Group of Third Classification

Group Ranking	Sophomore		Senior	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Group 1.....	21.4	30.0	30.8	30.0
Group 2.....	29.2	32.3	26.5	30.0
Group 3.....	47.5	37.5	41.3	38.2
Group 4.....	1.8	0.2	1.4	1.8

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Approximately 44 per cent of the books read were written by authors listed in the English teachers' published list. Almost all of these books are included in the first and second groups of the third classification. About 57 per cent of the books read are ranked as "very good" or as "having some merit." The percentage of "harmful" books is very small.

During the time which this survey covered the girls read one book per pupil more than the boys. In the case of the senior class the girls read 1.7 books per pupil more than the boys. The drop in the boys' reading from 2.4 books per pupil in the sophomore year to 1.2 books per pupil in the senior year is probably due to the increased participation in athletics and other extracurricular activities.

A comparison of the three classifications shows a slight increase in the pupils' abilities to choose good books independently. In the first classification 22.7 per cent of books read by the sophomores were definitely recommended by the book list whereas only 16.1 per cent of these books were read by the seniors. In the second classification the sophomores read 44.2 per cent and the seniors read 43.2 per cent of the books written by authors mentioned in the published book list. In the third classification, shown in Table II, the sophomores read 56.5 per cent and the seniors read 58.6 per cent of the books ranked as "very good" or "having some merit." The sophomores, therefore, chose

approximately 34 per cent of these good books without the aid of the book list and the seniors chose 43 per cent in the same manner. Assuming that these percentages represent the pupils' abilities to choose good reading material we may say that this ability for discrimination increased about 9 per cent during the three years of senior high school.

It is interesting to see that the percentage of books in the two upper groups of the third classification are almost the same for the sophomores as for the seniors. In these groups were 56.4 per cent of the books read by the sophomores and 58.6 per cent of those read by the seniors.

The ranking of the boys' reading in the third classification is almost the same for the sophomores as for the seniors. The girls' reading in this classification, however, shows a promising change. The books ranked as group 1, or "very good," increased from 21.4 per cent in the sophomore year to 30.8 per cent in the senior year. There was also a corresponding decrease of about 6 per cent in the books of group 3—those ranked as "worthless but harmless."

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The number of books read by the average high-school pupil seems rather small. The boys read less than the girls.

More than half of the books read by the pupils have some literary merit. The percentage of harmful books is very small. Approximately 40 per cent of the books have no particular merit. Most of these are mystery, detective, murder, and light love stories. There is a need here for more emphasis on discrimination.

There is, however, a small but definite increase from the sophomore year to the senior year in the pupils' power to choose good books. This increase is so small that it hardly justifies the three years of teaching which have produced it. Certainly it implies that, as taught at present, English courses are not functioning adequately in stimulating and guiding into worth-while channels the free reading interests of children.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles, and where possible, descriptions of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.

THE WESTCHESTER PROJECT

A research project into social conditions in a suburban community (Westchester County, New York, suburban to New York City) with special reference to recreation is being undertaken by the Council for Research in the Social Sciences at Columbia University in coöperation with the Westchester County Recreation Commission. The project is being directed by Dr. George A. Lundberg and participated in by Mr. Robert S. Lynd and other members of the staff and graduate students in sociology at Columbia University.

The purpose¹ is to conduct a basic study of present recreational habits and facilities in Westchester County and their potential adaptation and extension in the light of current social change in the county.

The study will be developed on two levels concurrently: (1) A compilation of existing knowledge designed to lay a broad, essential foundation for future study however extended or limited; (2) a few intensive projects on specific problems of selected areas.

I. *A preliminary rapid survey of the county as a whole to determine:*

A. Major social and economic factors, such as population concentration, location, and proportion of commuting population, demographic composition, economic stratification, and rates of change in recent decades.

B. Kind, location, and use of present public and commercial recreational facilities in the county by different groups.

¹The following statement was furnished through the courtesy of Dr. George A. Lundberg.

II. *The commuting population:*

(This will probably include case studies of two or more small sample groups of families on different income levels, in addition to other available materials.)

- A. Reasons for living in county rather than in other suburbs or city, including careful check of such factors as number of years married and age of children when first moved to county, recreational and social preferences of individual members of the family, etc.
- B. Length of residence in county and in particular part of county, frequency of moving, and direction of movement (*i.e.*, hierarchy of communities in point of popular desirability).
- C. Pattern of daily living, winter and summer, of the commuting family, including—
 1. Inventory of daily activities of family members, including all forms of recreation, in relation to:
 - a) Whether carried on in home, "neighborhood," county, or New York City;
 - b) Whether carried on as a family, or individually, or as members of nonfamily group;
 - c) Whether carried on in public, private, or commercial agencies;
 - d) Number and kinds of facilities for recreation possessed by the family, including automobiles, club membership, books, size of yard, playground equipment, etc.;
 - e) Variety of contacts with groups and agencies in county and New York City classified by whether each involves identical, overlapping, or different groups as regards income level, local geographical area limitations, etc.

III. *The noncommuting population:*

(The extent to which material comparable to that in the preceding section will be gathered will depend upon the relative importance of the noncommuting population revealed under section I above.)

IV. *Westchester as a "community":*

- A. Factors—racial, economic, social, political, geographical, religious, recreational—making and unmaking its unity.
- B. Implications of the functional groups and cleavages in the county for "community" recreational planning for the county as a whole.

A STUDY OF ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS IN TEXAS²

This is a part of the work of the University of Texas in research in the social sciences carried on under the auspices of the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Fund. At present, a

²By Annie Webb Blanton, associate professor of educational administration, specialist in rural education, University of Texas.

study has been made of the pupils in eight one-teacher schools in three counties in different sections of the State. Each rural pupil has been matched with a child of the same age and sex in the city schools of the three county seats. All pupils, both rural and urban, have been given the following tests—group mental tests; standardized achievement tests in all of the subjects which they study; the Sims socio-economic test and a supplementary social test devised by the investigation; and a series of physical tests selected with the purpose of ascertaining the physical status of the pupils. In addition, the Binet-Simon intelligence tests have been given to approximately sixty per cent of the pupils. These are to serve as a check on the group mental tests. Materials have not yet been compiled.

THE CHINESE TONG: A STUDY OF INSTITUTIONS^a

The tongs or societies of the Chinese are studied with a view to throwing further light upon the nature of institutions—as, the relation of institution to social organization; their rise; the functions they perform; their modification, persistence, or decay. The study centers, therefore, about the general problem of the natural history of institutions. Quantitative and ecological approaches are employed in some phases of the study, but chief emphasis is put upon detailed case studies of tongs and of tong members. Interviews with tong members, translations of tong records, public documents, published articles about tongs—these are the main sources of information.

THE DAILY SCHEDULE METHOD

In "A Study of the Daily Schedules of Freshmen Women in a State Teachers College"^a the diary form of the daily schedule was used in collecting the data. Beginning at 6.00 a.m. each day the student recorded the activity in which she was engaged at that time. The next activity was recorded on the second line, and the record continued

^aA study being conducted at the University of Hawaii by Clarence E. Glick.

^bBy Myrtle LeCompte, a graduate student at Teachers College of Columbia University.

in this way during the twenty-four hours. For example:

- 6.00 Sleeping
- 7.00 Bathing and dressing
- 7.15 Talking with roommate
- 7.20 Reading the newspaper
- 7.45 Breakfast, etc.

These detailed schedules were kept for a week.

This simple form of record is more accurate than the classified form sometimes used because it requires no delayed memory or discriminating judgment on the part of the student.

As in the case of data collected by interviews, questionnaires, and certain types of tests, the reliability of this method depends largely on the extent to which the investigator is *en rapport* with the subjects and obtains their genuine coöperation.

A further discussion of this method may be found in "A Supplement to the Case Record," by Ruth Strang, *American Journal of Sociology*, Volume XXXIII (September, 1927), pages 262-268.

RESEARCH IN SOCIOLOGY IN HAWAII

Research in sociology at the University of Hawaii is a part of the general research program there in physical anthropology, psychology, and sociology financed by the Rockefeller Foundation. Hawaii is a splendid locus for studies in the field of racial and cultural relations. Dr. Romanzo Adams has studied chiefly marriage, intermarriage, and the family in Hawaii. Mr. A. W. Lind has completed his work, *Racial Invasion in Hawaii*, an ecological study in economic and racial succession and invasion. Dr. E. B. Reuter and Miss Doris Lorden have investigated the status of the Chinese-Hawaiian hybrid. Mr. C. E. Glick's research is concerned with the Chinese tongs. Mr. J. Masuoka and Miss Margaret Lam have been working on social distance of Japanese in Hawaii and on race attitudes of Chinese-Hawaiians, respectively.⁶

⁶Statement furnished through the courtesy of Clarence E. Glick.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY *this month continues its new policy of brief, expository book reviews. All books received are sent to experts in their fields. Only such books are reviewed as are considered to make some contribution to their fields.*

The Austrian Educational Institutes, by BERYL PARKER.
Vienna: Austrian Federal Publisher for Education,
Science, and Art, 1931, 184 pages.

Dr. Parker is already known to students of comparative education as a team mate of Dr. Alexander in their collaborative study *The New Education in the German Republic*. In her new book Miss Parker appears as a full-fledged author in her own right. Cramped into less than two hundred pages, her story of the rise and struggles of the Austrian *Bundeserziehungsanstalten* is complete and thorough. Not only has she written a scholarly book, but she has graced it with an interesting and lively style. To make her job complete, moreover, she has thrown in scores of splendid illustrations.

Modern Methods in High School Teaching, by HARL R. DOUGLASS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1926, 544 pages.

"The task of this book will be a discussion of the technique of adjusting education to the needs of adolescents, in the light of modern knowledge as to the purposes of secondary education," reports the author in the preface. He has held consistently to his task and has handled the subject with great skill. This volume is justly finding wide acceptance in training schools and reading circles. Some of the most interesting chapters of the book are: Socialized Class Procedure, Supervising Pupil Study, Visual Instructions, and Quizzes, Examinations, and Marking.

English for American High Schools, by WALTER BARNES.
New York: Rand, McNally and Company, 1931,
xvi+630 pages.

Here is a new type of book that is a text for high-school students and in which the author conceives language as a social activity intimately connected with other social activities. Moreover, this is not merely a theoretical conception of the author but each detail of the book's construction conforms to the author's conception. This may be noted from the following topics comprising part one of the text:

conversation, story-telling, the friendly letter, discussion, explanation, the business letter, argument, speech making, minor types of language activity, language enterprises and projects.

Objective Tests on "Modern Methods in High School Teaching," by HARL R. DOUGLASS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931, 30 pages.

This is an examination consisting of two forms covering the materials in *Modern Methods in High School Teaching* by the same author. Each form has two parts as follows: part one, 50 true-false exercises, 15 multiple-choice exercises, 15 enumeration exercises; part two, 60 true-false exercises, 15 multiple-choice exercises, and 15 enumeration exercises. No standards or norms are given.

Social Science Lessons for Junior Workers, by CLARENCE P. DAVEY and JAMES CAMERON. New York: The Century Company, 1930, 94 pages.

This little book is a students' manual in which forty lessons are outlined on: (1) industrial problems and relationships, (2) civic problems and relationships, and (3) economic problems and relationships. In the words of the authors, "The material presented is intended to acquaint pupils with existing conditions, ideals, and goals in community, State, and national life; to give serious attention to the developments of right social attitudes; and to get the pupils to think for themselves."

Supervising Extra-Curricular Activities, by PAUL W. TERRY. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1930, 417 pages.

This volume is divided into four parts as follows: Part One, Historical and Theoretical Backgrounds; Part Two, Student Participation in the Government of the School; Part Three, Important Types of Student Organizations; Part Four, Problems of Organization and Supervision. Undoubtedly, part one carries the most elaborate historical and theoretical statement of the background of social cooperation available in any of the publications dealing with extracurricular activities.

Some Factors in the Undergraduate Careers of Young College Students, by H. A. GRAY. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930, 66 pages.

Through the analysis of the records of one hundred twenty-six boys at Columbia and of twenty-eight girls at Barnard, all of whom had entered college under sixteen years of age, the author has attempted to isolate the factors most influential in their undergraduate achieve-

ments and experiences. His objectives are: (1) "to test the necessity for, and the desirability of minimum age requirements for college entrance," and (2) "to set up admission criteria . . . which will better enable college officers to decide the question of admission of the individual applicants whose chronological age is obviously less than that of his prospective classmates."

Education on the Air, Second Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Edited by JOSEPHINE H. MACLATCHY. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1931, 286 pages.

This book is composed of a series of reports given at the meeting held in Columbus, Ohio, last summer. The contents of the book are grouped around seven topics: (1) national aspects of education by radio; (2) organization of radio education; (3) activities of college stations; (4) radio in the schoolroom; (5) technical aspects of radio; (6) investigation in radio education; and (7) presenting chain programs. One's interest will determine what section or sections will be read. Each one is valuable according to the viewpoint of the reader. The volume is a valuable addition to any professional library on education.

Symposium on Physical Education and Health, compiled and edited by JAY B. NASH. New York: New York University Press Book Store, 1930, 320 pages.

A distinct service is being rendered to education in the series of publications sponsored by Professor Jay B. Nash, head of the department of physical and health education of the New York University School of Education. The first of these books is a symposium presenting the deeper meanings of the value in the activities of the curricula of the department. The general theme of this symposium is the "oneness of mind and body" and the purpose is to show that mental and physical activities are inseparable.

Towards Better Education, by DAVID SNEDDEN. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, vii+427 pages.

Perhaps no other writer on educational problems has been more prolific in output than the author of *Towards Better Education* and this is his *magnus opus* both in the physical sense, for he has contributed more than 400 pages, and in the sense of a contribution to present-day educational discussion. What, then, is this *magnus opus*? It is a critical analysis of the writings of practically all of the educational philosophers of the present generation. The author has selected sixteen groups of educational problems, and in the center of present discussion, has sought to show that educational writers have floundered in confusion and in "rank romanticism" because of failure to distinguish between educational purposes and educational methods.

Problems in Teacher Training, Volume VI, compiled and edited by AMBROSE L. SUHRIE. New York: New York University Press Book Store, 1931, 399 pages.

This volume contains the proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Eastern-States Association of Professional Schools for Teachers held in April 1931. It is a complete and detailed "story" of the meeting—of the administrative and financial affairs of the organization; of the reports of officers; and of the papers read and addresses made during the meeting.

The major topics of the conference were: the standards of the American Association of Teachers Colleges; construction and revision of the curriculum in professional schools for teachers; and innovations in teacher-training programs.

Fads and Fallacies of Present Day Education, by H. E. BUCHOLTZ. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 200 pages.

For the want of a name the above book is given the title of *Fads and Fallacies of Present Day Education*. It might more appropriately have been called a satire on certain aspects of American educational practice. The author of the volume has, for years, been a well-known contributor to the *Baltimore Sun*. To those who wish to see certain present-day tendencies of education in the light of a critically minded layman will enjoy the few hours needed to read the volume.

Illiteracy in the United States, by SANFORD WINSTON. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1930, 168 pages.

This study, based upon the census data of the past fifty years, traces the trend of illiteracy in the United States over the past half a century and presents the problem of illiteracy as it exists in this country at the present time. In undertaking this investigation the author had in mind two major objectives: first, "to analyze the trend of illiteracy in the United States and its present relation to sex, age, urban and rural environment, race and nationality, and school systems"; secondly, "to emphasize the fact that illiteracy, as a measure of educational status, achieves importance as it affects other social phenomena." In connection with the latter objective, Winston has attempted to determine quantitatively the relationship of illiteracy to the selected factors of birth rate, infant mortality, early age of marriage, size of family, mobility, suicide, and urbanization.

Child Labor Legislation in New York, by MARY CALLCOTT. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 267 pages.

Beginning with a brief survey of efforts to enact and enforce child-labor legislation up to the year 1905, the author proceeds to trace in detail the development of child labor laws in the State of New York over the past quarter of a century and to analyze the methods used to administer them. The laws passed, together with the bills that have failed, are grouped according to their subject matter and treated historically. The description of the long struggle between the forces that have worked for better protective legislation and those which have sought to retard progress in this field shows how the former, with an inestimable amount of effort and patience, have slowly succeeded in placing New York in a position of leadership with regard to standards of child-labor legislation.

Recent Trends in American Housing, by EDITH ELMER WOOD. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 317 pages.

This volume, from the pen of an experienced student, who has for many years been engaged in a first-hand study of housing conditions and developments in this country and in many foreign countries, comes as a sequel to an earlier volume, *The Housing of the Unskilled Wage Earner*, published by the author in 1919. In her first book the author traced the history of housing in the United States, both as to conditions and attempted remedies, prior to the World War. The present volume analyzes the problems connected with securing the minimum standards of housing for the two thirds of our population who cannot pay a rental or purchase price high enough to produce a commercial profit on a new dwelling, satisfactory to the commercial builder, and describes the characteristic trends and tendencies in American housing during the past fourteen years.

Societal Evolution, by A. G. KELLER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, revised edition, 419 pages.

The *Societal Evolution* of William Graham Sumner as expounded by Professor A. G. Keller reappears in new and revised form after six printings in the past sixteen years to its credit. The main change in this already familiar work is the addition of considerable illustrative material drawn from contemporary rather than primitive life. No other American scholar is so well fitted to write a book either about or for William Graham Sumner.

Because I Stutter, By WENDELL JOHNSON. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930, 127 pages.

The autobiography of a stutterer. An interesting document reflecting the effect of speech defect upon the attitudes and personality of a speech defective, and the problems of adjustment it forced him to face. Good case material for teaching.

Measurement of Nervous Habits, by WILLARD OLSON.
Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1929,
97 pages.

The results of an investigation in the measurement of nervous habits or tics in children. The relation of nervous habits to age, sex, and a variety of other factors is traced through a group of children ranging from two to fifteen years. Highly suggestive as to methods of objective observation and analysis of complex behavior entities.

Problems of Preschool Children, by MARIE TILSON. New
York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Co-
lumbia University, 1929, 90 pages.

An inventory of the problems of behavior presented by 225 American-born children between the ages of one and five years referred to seven habit clinics—a study of the relationship of types of problems to chronological and mental age; nationality, education, religion, and occupation of parents; number of children in the family; and position of the problem child in the family.

BOOKS RECEIVED

Administration of an Elementary School Subject, by Gist. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

America's Story as Told in Postage Stamps, by Allen. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

American Planes and Standards of Living, by Eliot. Boston: Ginn and Company.

American Public Mind, by Odegard. New York: Columbia University Press.

Audit of America, by Hunt. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Born a Jew, by Bogen. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Ninth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association.

By Words of Mouth, by Boldyreff. Boston: Richard G. Badger.

China and Japan in Our Museums, by March. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Coleccion Socrates, by Agustin Venturino. Volumes III, V, VI, and VII. Barcelona, Spain: Editorial Cervantes.

Comenius, by Keatinge. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Commonwealth Fund Annual Report, 1930. New York: Commonwealth Fund.

Communist and Coöperative Colonies, by Gide. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

Community Organization, by Steiner. New York: The Century Company.

- Cultural Education and Common Sense*, by Snedden. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Culture and Education in America*, by Rugg. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.
- Drift of Civilization*, by Howe, et al. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Economic Behavior*, by Atkins, et al. Volumes I and II. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin*, by Woody. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Educational Works of Thomas Jefferson*, by Honeywell. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College*, by Kandel. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Efficiency in Vocational Education*, by Wright and Allen. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- English Education, 1789-1902*, by Adamson. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- English Tradition of Education*, by Norwood. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company.
- Essays on Comparative Education*, by Kandel. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Essays on Research in the Social Sciences*, by Swann, et al. Washington, D. C.: Brookings Institute.
- Ethnic Survey of Woonsocket, Rhode Island*, by Wessel. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Everyman's Book of Flying*, by Kneen. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.
- Evolution of Culture*, by Lippert. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Evolution of Public Education in a New Jersey School District*, by Foster. Philadelphia: W. F. Humphrey Press.
- Fads and Fallacies in Present Day Education*, by Buchholz. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Folk Culture on St. Helena Island*, by Johnson. Chapel Hill, N. C.: The University of North Carolina Press.
- Growth of Freedom in Education*, by McAllister. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Henry Barnard on Education*, by Brubacher, editor. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Historical Evolution of Modern Nationalism*, by Hayes. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Humanism as a Way of Life*, by Frederick. New York: Business Bourse.
- Inglis Lecture, 1931*, by Dewey. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Intelligence in Politics*, by Ward. Chapel Hill, N. C.: The University of North Carolina Press.

- International Understanding*, by Harley. Stanford University, Cal.: Stanford University Press.
- Living in the Twentieth Century*, by Barnes. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company.
- Love Children*, by deFord. New York: Dial Press.
- Making Fascists*, by Harper. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Making of Citizens*, by Merriam. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Making of Man*, edited by Calverton. New York: Modern Library, Inc.
- Meaning of Culture*, by Powys. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc.
- Methods and Statistics of Scientific Research*, by Spahr and Swenson. New York: Harper and Brothers.
- Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, by Cole. New York: D. Appleton and Company.
- Mothers, The*, by Briffault. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Mysterious Universe*, by Jean. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Mysticism and Logic*, by Russell. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc.
- New Education in Austria*, by Dottrens. New York: The John Day Company.
- New Education in Europe*, by Roman. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company.
- New Schools for Young India*, by McKee. Chapel Hill, N. C.: The University of North Carolina Press.
- New Views of Evolution*, by Conger. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- New Worlds of Physical Discovery*, by Darrow. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company.
- Origin and History of Politics*, by MacLeod. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Our Business Civilization*, by Adams. New York: Albert and Charles Boni.
- Ourselves and the World*, by Lumley and Bode. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Pan-Sovietism*, by Hopper. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Pioneers of Women's Education*, by Goodsell. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Psychology and Religious Experience*, by Halliday. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Publication of American Sociological Society*, May, 1931. Chicago: American Sociological Society.
- Race and Population Problems*, by Duncan. New York: Longmans, Green and Company.
- Readings in Sociology*, by Wallis and Willey. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

- Recent Trends in American Housing*, by Wood. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Renewal of Culture*, by Ringbom. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Restriction of Output Among Unorganized Workers*, by Mathewson. New York: Viking Press.
- School Betterment Studies*, Volumes I and II. Pittsburgh: Henry C. Frick Educational Commission.
- Science of Biology*, by Scott. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company.
- Set of Five Studies*. Albany: Crime Commission of New York State.
- Sixth Yearbook, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Social Attitudes*, edited by Young. New York: Henry Holt and Company.
- Social Behavior of Insects*, by Imms. New York: Dial Press.
- Social Organization*, by Bushee. New York: Henry Holt and Company.
- Social Process in Original Groups*, by Coyle. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Social Psychology*, by Folsom. New York: Harper and Brothers.
- Social Research*, by Lundberg. New York: Longmans, Green and Company.
- Social Work Administration*, by Street. New York: Harper and Brothers.
- Social Work of the Churches*, by Johnson. New York: Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America.
- Sociology of City Life*, by Carpenter. New York: Longmans, Green and Company.
- Some Folks Won't Work*, by Calkins. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.
- Some Social Aspects of Mental Hygiene*, edited by Williams. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
- Story of the Weather*, by Van Cleef. New York: The Century Company.
- Supervision of the Elementary Schools*, by Stone. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Technique of Controversy*, by Bogoslovsky. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.
- Ten Years of World Coöperation*, Secretariat of the League of Nations. Boston: World Peace Foundation.
- Tests and Challenges in Sociology*, by Ross. New York: The Century Company.
- Thomas Jefferson and Education in a Republic*, edited by Arrowood. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Tortured China*, by Abend. New York: Ives Washburn.
- Towards Better Education*, by Snedden. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Village and Country Neighborhoods, by Terpenning. New York: The Century Company.

Workbook in Local, State and National Government, by Capen. New York: American Book Company.

Workbook in Sociology, by Schettler and Simpson. New York: American Book Company.

Workmen's Compensation, by Hulvey and Wandel. New York: The Century Company.

Your Nose, Ears and Throat, by Oaks and Merrill. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Dr. Mary Emma Woolley, president of Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts, has been appointed by President Hoover as a member of the American delegation to the General Disarmament Conference of the League of Nations, which convened in Geneva on February 2.

Mr. Ben M. Cherrington, professor of international relations and executive secretary of the Foundation for the Advancement of the Social Sciences of the University of Denver, has been sent to Europe by the university to study the international situation at first hand. After a brief visit to Moscow and other capitals he attended the opening of the Disarmament Conference at Geneva. On his return early in March he will lecture in the East.

Herman J. Magee, head of the teacher-training division of the New York State Education Department, died on December 26, at the age of thirty-seven years.

The Omaha Council of Social Agencies through its committee on recreation has recently closed a community-wide recreation institute. This was conducted by Mr. J. K. Batchelor, field representative of the National Recreation Association. The chairman of the committee is Dr. T. Earl Sullenger, professor of sociology in the Municipal University of Omaha. The committee was not content with conducting merely a successful institute, but organized a team of volunteer leaders who took the course to conduct free recreational programs in various sections of the city throughout the winter months. Public buildings are being utilized for this enterprise. This program is in coöperation with the city-wide endeavor to raise the morale of the financially depressed during this economic crisis.

Dr. and Mrs. Harold Rugg will spend the next six months conducting studies of cultural changes in China. These studies are the first of a series to be carried on in collaboration with associates in Nankai University in Tientsin under the auspices of the Institute of Pacific Relations. Dr. Rugg will also collaborate with the Japanese and Chinese leaders in organizing branches of the New Education Fellowship. Returning through Siberia and eastern Europe, Dr. and Mrs. Rugg will take part in the sixth World Conference on the New Education at Nice, in August 1932. They plan to return to the United States in September.

The Inglis Lecture of the Harvard Graduate School of Education was delivered by Dr. William Setchell Learned of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching on January 13. The title of the address was Realism in American Education. The Inglis Lectureship on Secondary Education was established by the Harvard Graduate School of Education in honor of the late Professor Alexander Inglis, a member of the faculty of the school, who at the time of his

death in 1924 had become a leading scholar and writer in the field of secondary education.

The World Congress on Recreation

The first world congress on recreation will be held in Los Angeles from July 23 to 29, just prior to the Olympic games. The congress will be held under the auspices of the National Recreation Association.

Dr. Augustus O. Thomas, president of the World Federation of Education Associations since its organization in 1923 to the present year, has now accepted the position of secretary-general with headquarters in Washington, D. C.

Miss Annabelle Bergman who is completing her work for the master's degree in educational sociology and music education in New York University is scheduled to teach a course in City College in the Queensborough division during this semester.

Dr. Paul Lomax, head of the department of commercial education, spent three weeks in December giving lectures before various teachers' associations in California and other Western States.

Dr. Otto Harris of the geography department of Washington Square College of New York University has organized a most interesting educational tour in which he and his party will visit many centers of geographical and historical interest in Europe during the coming summer.

Dr. L. L. Bernard, director of the Brown School of Social Work of Washington University, was elected president of the American Sociological Society at the recent meeting in Washington.

Mr. S. O. Rorem who has recently completed the work on his doctorate in the New York University School of Education has been appointed assistant superintendent of schools at Port Chester, New York; his work began February first.

The Editor of THE JOURNAL Again Honored

Dr. E. George Payne, head of the department of educational sociology and Assistant Dean of the New York University School of Education, was elected a Fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at the December meeting of the Council in Washington.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Mr. Francis J. Brown received his A.B. from the University of Iowa in 1918 and his A.M. from Teachers College of Columbia University in 1923. He was principal of the high school in Emmett, Idaho, from 1919 to 1920, superintendent of schools from 1920 to 1922, instructor in education at the University of Rochester from 1923 to 1926, and assistant professor of education and associate director of extension at the University of Rochester from 1926 to 1930. At present Mr. Brown is instructor in education at New York University School of Education. He is a member of the Department of Superintendence, American Association of University Professors, American Sociological Association, Kappa Phi Kappa, and Phi Delta Kappa. He is the author of *Objective Measurement of Character, an Experimental Study*; *The Value of Incentives in Education*; *The Free Time Reading Interests of High School Students*; and *An Evaluation of Extra-mural Courses*.

Mr. Cain is completing his Sc.B. requirements and doing work towards his A.M. degree at New York University School of Education. He has been associated for several years with the maintenance department of the Board of Education of South Orange and Maplewood, New Jersey.

Mr. Walter E. Hammond is superintendent of schools at Keene, New Hampshire. He attended Worcester Polytechnic Institute from 1909 to 1910 and Pennsylvania State College from 1911 to 1912. Mr. Hammond received his A.A. degree from Harvard in 1927 and Ed.M. from Boston University in 1929. He studied for the doctorate at Rutgers University. Mr. Hammond has had vast teaching experience, having taught all grades, rural schools, and city high schools.

Dr. Earl E. Muntz, professor of economics in the School of Commerce of New York University, received his A.B. degree from Baldwin College and his A.M. and Ph.D. degrees from Yale University with graduate specialization in sociology and economics. Dr. Muntz was professor of sociology in Hobart College from 1921 to 1922, instructor in economics and social institutions in Princeton University from 1922 to 1925, and for the last six years has been connected with New York University. Aside from being professor of economics in the School of Commerce, Dr. Muntz is in charge of all the sociology offered in that school. Dr. Muntz is the author of *Race Contact* and various articles. At present, he is engaged in a survey of hospital facilities and costs in New York City.

Mr. Archie M. Palmer is a graduate of Cornell University to which he returned in 1920 after three years in regular army service to become secretary of the College of Arts and Sciences. He has his A.M. degree from Columbia University and has practically completed the requirements for his doctorate in the field of higher education. He was

assistant director of the Institute of International Education from 1927 to 1929. Since August 1929 he has been associate secretary of the Association of American Colleges and in collaboration with Dr. Robert L. Kelly has been conducting the research and advisory activities of that organization.

Dr. David Snedden is professor of education in Teachers College of Columbia University. Professor Snedden received his bachelor's degree from Leland Stanford Junior and his A.M. and Ph.D. degrees from Columbia. He has had wide experience as teacher, principal, and administrator of schools in California and Massachusetts. He has been in his present position since 1916. He is widely known as a lecturer and author on education. He has made notable contributions to the literature of vocational and secondary education and he has been one of the early pioneers in educational sociology, in which field he has written a number of books.

Mrs. Florence Zeleny received her A.B. from the University of Michigan and her A.M. is to be completed at the University of Minnesota in March. In the past she has held the following positions: instructor of English, Ferris Institute, Big Rapids, Michigan; county normal supervisor, Port Huron, Michigan; instructor for three summer sessions at the Ypsilanti State Teachers College, and first-grade teacher at Ann Arbor, Michigan. At present, Mrs. Zeleny is instructor in education (reading and speech) at the State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota. Mrs. Zeleny's interest in sociology has been due to the fact that her husband, Dr. L. D. Zeleny, is professor of sociology at the State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota.

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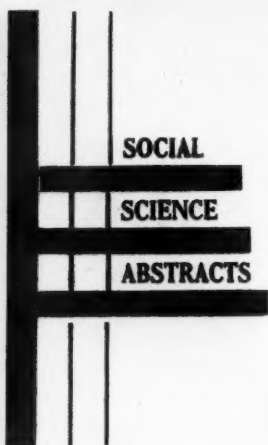
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